EDUCATION, TRAINING AND
DEVELOPMENT IN GOVERNMENT/VOLUNTARY
SECTOR RELATIONSHIPS

by

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## PREFACE

This report was prepared with the support of a research grant from the National Advisory Council on Voluntary Action. It has been written to meet a specific need; namely, to provide background material and proposals to assist the Council in formulating its position on the use of education, training and development as one means of developing and maintaining effective relationships between government and the voluntary sector. It is also part, however, of a more comprehensive research project bearing on how government does and might more effectively use private agencies in the adminis- tration of public policies.

The wealth of material on voluntary associations is impressive, developed as it has been by scholars from many disciplines and in many countries, and existing in complement to the less academically rigorous but important material of a practical nature from consult- ants and practitioners. There is a special challenge to the educator, however, in the size of the gap between what is known or conjectured in the literature, and the knowledge and skills actually being employed in the practitioner's world. There are also intriguing philosophical issues, and in particular that of the instrumental value of voluntar- ism in terms of Canada's social goals and priorities, and its reality once the myths that surround it are cleared away. While the focus of the report, therefore, is upon education, training and development it has been set in the context of government/voluntary sector interactions more generally and the role of voluntarism in Canadian society.

It had been hoped at the outset of the study to be in a position to conclude the report with a number of major recommendations concern- ing how education might be used, beginning immediately, to foster and maintain strong and mutually beneficial relationships between govern- ment and the voluntary sector. Indeed, developing such recommendations was the core of the original mandate from the Council. The hope rested on an untested assumption that either or both of the voluntary sector and government, or some independent agency concerned with interface

issues between the two sectors, had already completed at least a
rudimentary needs' assessment exercise and that, as a consequence,
those barriers to fully effective relationships amenable to an edu-
cational strategy had been identified.  It soon became clear, how-
ever, that no relevant needs' studies have been undertaken, and that
this remains a key priority.  Accordingly, the report seeks instead
to develop the case for government and the voluntary sector approach-
ing their interrelationships much more systematically, with education
as a major but by no means sole strategy.  The recommendations which
conclude the study are presented with the end in mind of bringing the
two sectors into possible collaboration on needs' identification and
subsequent new educational initiatives.

CHAPTER ONE:  Government and the Voluntary Sector

Definitions.

There is a wide range of definitions of the voluntary sector
in use in both the scholarly and practitioner literature.  Accord-
ingly, and to more properly establish the frame of reference of the
study in relation to government, it seems necessary to define and
briefly discuss three central concepts used throughout the report.
They are: "government", "voluntary action", and "voluntary agency".

1.    Government, in the context of this report, except where express-
ly qualified, refers equally to every jurisdictional level:  federal,
provincial, regional, municipal.  Within each jurisdiction it includes
both the political level and the public services.

The position is taken that government is distinguished, as one
among many institutions in Canadian society, for its constitutional
right to act authoritatively in allocating scarce resources among com-
peting valued goods and services.[1]  It is given a monopoly of
coercive power within its particular jurisdictional boundaries because
it is the one agent Canadian society possesses to perform those
functions we judge must be carried out for us as a collectivity, in-
cluding balancing or mediating among the activities of the multitude
of special-interest groups we establish.  Where other institutions
act for a particular good, government is there to act for the common
good.  On frequent occasion special interest groups may and do, how-
ever, successfully persuade it to accept "particular good" responsi-
bilities, detracting from or in complement to its central concern
with the common good. [2]

2.    Voluntary action is a term which refers to all activities
people engage in beyond those expressly required by their employ-
ment, by law, or by strong family or  other group commitments which

inhibit their freedom of action. [3] The single voluntary act
can occur as part of or in conjunction with any social role, in-
cluding paid employment. When a particular role is built primarily
or solely around a set of voluntary acts we have the role of the
volunteer. [4]

As Canadian society is currently constituted, a broad dis-
tinction is made between the work-a-day world, when time and commit-
ment are sold for cash remuneration, and "free" time, which we
spend as we judge best or most desirable. Whenever we give our time
freely, without remuneration or at levels of remuneration signific-
antly below those established in relation to our normal work, we are
engaged in voluntary action.

In some ways the term is unfortunate; volunteer action might
more appropriately capture the sense of the definition. Many people
go to their regular work voluntarily, with no sense of coercion;
the distinguishing feature is whether one "volunteers" his services
(i.e. without remuneration) or expects to be paid at regular rates.
Yet in a second sense the term voluntary action is a fortunate one,
as it serves to permit the parallels to be drawn between the motiva-
tional characteristics of the volunteer and the considerations related
to making or obtaining especially-strong commitment and participation
in the work-place. [5] Insights from voluntarism, therefore, have
relevance to the concerns of managers regarding the motivation of
their regular, paid, personnel. [6]

3.    Voluntary Agencies. As one variety of formal organization in
Canadian society, the voluntary agency is distinguished from all
others in that its members are volunteers, giving their time freely,
without remuneration or coercion. [7] Voluntary agencies frequently
have paid officials, in the main serving the organizational needs of
the agency itself, but the purposes of the agency are pursued, its
objectives and goals met, primarily through the activities of volun-
teer members.

There is considerable disagreement in the literature concerning the definition of a voluntary agency. Some authors would exclude political parties, trade associations, and unions, for example, while others cast an exceptionally broad net. [8]

The definition given above and used throughout the report is clearly a broad one, permitting and indeed requiring that it be broken down into its distinctive categories. Following the approach of David Horton Smith, a set of five such categories is used, as follows: [9]

(a)    Service-oriented agencies, primarily dedicated to helping others or doing things for others (the Red Cross is a prime example).

(b)    Issue-oriented or cause-oriented agencies, whose efforts are directed at making some kind of change in society or the bio-physical environment (e.g. Pollution Probe, the Voice of Women, consumer action groups).

(c)    Agencies for self-expression, existing primarily to allow members to enjoy certain activities for their own sake, to express themselves and to grow personally in ways they judge desirable (e.g. Little Theatre groups, garden clubs).

(d)    Occupational/economic self-interest agencies, primarily aimed at furthering the occupational and/or economic interests of their members (e.g. professional associations, businessmen's groups, etc.). Because membership does not involve direct remuneration for participation, they qualify as voluntary agencies provided there is no coercion or legal requirement to join. Trade unions would only fall into this group, therefore, where membership was not a requirement for remuneration in a particular occupation.

(e)    Philanthropic or funding agencies, primarily aimed at raising funds for and/or distributing them to other voluntary agencies (e.g. The United Way).

All five categories are for present purposes included in the definition of a voluntary agency, if only because government plays a role in relation to each. Together they represent the voluntary sector "market" for educational programs and while they have their

common base in the voluntary sector, their differences must also
be recognized. Accordingly they must in certain ways be handled
separately in assessing and meeting their educational needs. (10)

## The Relationships Between Government and the Voluntary Sector.

The relationships between government and the voluntary sector
constitute a rich and extremely complex area.  From the perspective
of government the area bears on the role of government in a democratic
and pluralist society, the involvement of the voluntary sector in
public policy processes and in administration, and the consideration
of government's stance on such highly relevant emerging issues as
the leisure society, the changing world of work, and new quality-of-
life considerations.  From the voluntary sector's perspective it in-
cludes certain general considerations in relating to government; a
more specific need for support in the form of legislation, regulations
or funds; concern with such mundane but not to be neglected matters
as licences and inspections, and the growing efforts of many agencies
to pressure government into policy and administration changes.
Society-at-large also has an interest and hence a perspective:  the
voluntary sector and government are only two facets of the larger
society, and how they relate to each other has a bearing on the well-
being and interests of other sectors.  Let me elaborate, in turn,
upon each of the perspectives of government, the voluntary sector,
and society-at-large.

1.    A Governmental Perspective on Government/Voluntary Sector
      Relationships

      (a)  Government's general commitment to pluralism
           Canada is a democracy.  As such it has a strong commitment
      to as much freedom of decision and action for the individual
      as is consistent with other values.  Included within the

broader freedom is a special commitment to the freedom to
associate for any purposes judged desirable by those asso-
ciating save only, again, when such freedom of association
conflicts with other things we value. (11)

The freedom to take decisions and act in accordance with
these, and the freedom to associate to serve common purposes,
provide a base upon which pluralism has emerged and is main-
tained. A society is pluralist when its decision-making is
shared widely among different sectors and social groupings. (12)
This is in contrast to the not-uncommon totalitarian societies
of today's world, where all decision-power is formally vested
in government. (13) If individual freedom, the freedom to as-
sociate, and the commitment to pluralism, are linked with the
fact that, as a federal state governmental powers themselves
are constitutionally distributed among the Federal Government
and ten provinces, it becomes clear that in any single juris-
diction government operates within severely-constrained bound-
aries.

Government cannot do anything it likes. Indeed, by law
and custom, it is expected to leave large segments of social
action to other sectors. It reaps the benefit, however, of
knowing that it can concentrate on its particular area of
functioning. It need not carry the entire burden of improving
the happiness and well-being of individuals and families in
Canada; there are many other social agents serving this end.

With reference to the voluntary sector's role Eduard C.
Lindeman has stated the following:

> "In recent years, as I have pondered over the
> vicissitudes of Democracy, it has often occurred
> to me to wonder what would happen if, in the
> United States, all citizens who work for nothing,
> who serve as volunteers, were suddenly to "go on
> strike".
> This band of strikers would include all trustees
> of colleges, universities and private schools; all
> members of local school boards; all directors of
> private institutions and agencies; all solicitors

for community chests; all lay boards collabora-
ting with public institutions and agencies, all
committee members of private institutions and
agencies; and that great host of citizens who
serve multitudes of educational, welfare, health
and recreational organizations in one capacity
or another. How large would the total be? I
know of no reliable count but the total would
certainly fall in the neighborhood of twenty-five
to thirty million persons.
What would happen if this corps of citizens who
labor without pay, who exercise their own free
will in choosing the functions they will perform,
were to resign their posts, refuse to attend
meetings, to disengage themselves from all res-
ponsibilities?
It is difficult to imagine what American life
minus its volunteers would be like, but one may
make a few assumptions.
Officials and professionals would, no doubt,
continue to operate their respective institutions
and agencies, at least for a time, but they
would function in a lonely atmosphere. They
would find themselves insulated from the true
public and in touch with only that sector of
the public which is represented by their cons-
tituents and clients. There would no longer
be a life-line between their expertness and the
experience of the people. The transmission belt
which shuttles back and forth between Democracy
on the one hand and Science on the other would
stand idle. They, the professionals, would soon
be obliged to devote large amounts of time and
energy in securing funds for the maintenance of
their work and assurance for their incomes.
Public agencies would take on more and more of
the coloration of bureaucracies. Private agencies
would, I believe, gradually wither and die. And
when private institutions no longer exist Demo-
cracy will have committed suicide. Totalitarian
bureaucracies or dictatorships will take its
place and freedom will disappear altogether." (14)


Lindeman's sentiments have been echoed by many others,
and it does seem irrefutable that we have built Canadian as
well as American society around a strong reliance upon volun-
tary action.     (15)  Because this is so, government needs a

clear awareness of the role of voluntary agencies, if
it is to chart its own path optimally.

(b) Public Policy Processes and the Voluntary Sector

In addition to the broad concern with maintaining a
healthy non-governmental sector and generally conforming
to the requirements of a pluralist society, government has
a number of more specific involvements with the voluntary
sector:  in the policy processes, the translation of policy
into viable administrative action, and the maintenance or
adjustment of on-going administrative activities.

The policy processes are those which set the overall
directions of government and establish the general guiding
principles required for the host of separate governmental
programs and activities.  Where government might conceivably
act in its policy processes in a very closed, internal,
élitist way, drawing only upon the contributions of elected
politicians and paid public servants, in practice it reaches
out very widely to the public at large and the particular
public it judges most closely affected.  Despite such occa-
sional major aberrations as Watergate, and many more devia-
tions of a less striking nature, this is very much a part of
the democratic way.  Moreover, it is not at all alien to
political decision-makers who have reached their positions in
a milieu, and through a process, that requires a special recept-
ivity to the values and wants of others.

When the Glassco Commission [16] based its 1962-63 report
on the central principle of responsive and responsible bureau-
cracy this was in major part exhortatory.  It was also, however,
a reflection of how both politicians and public servants do
strive to act.  Attesting to the open-ness of the policy pro-
cesses to external influences are such phenomena as White
Papers, Green Papers, Royal Commissions, Advisory Committees
and Councils.  Indicative also, are the tolerance of and re-

ceptivity to interest group activity and at times its
active stimulation, the eternal reaching-out by the indi-
vidual politician seeking to guage the opinion of his
constituents and the amount of time actually spent by a
politician in responding to the requests of constituents. There
are,too,recent initiatives in the Prime Minister's Office
aimed at more accurately testing the political climate,
including the interesting phenomenon of Prime Minister's
lunches.  Moves at the municipal level include taking con-
crete account of "citizen participation" through adapting
traditional Council Committee structures and functioning.
The tolerance and, on occasion, the receptivity to the direct
actions from individual Farley Mowats and different groups of
a "Greenpeace" nature serve as a final example. [17]

Moreover, the signs are that such external involvement
is growing in both scope and vigour.  Even if this were not
so, the current level of activity is sufficiently high to
make it a matter of importance that government learn as much
as it reasonably can about the sectors involved in its policy-
making, and that individuals in government develop skills in
dealing with such external influences.  In the present context
this implies understanding what is involved in establishing
optimal relations.with the voluntary sector, and developing
the skills to put such knowledge to good effect.

(c) Public Administration and the Voluntary Sector

An early example of the voluntary sector's involvement
with government as its agent in administrative matters was the
Ontario Government's reliance upon a network of purely volun-
tary children's aid societies to give effect to the 1893
Act for the Protection of Neglected and Dependent Children.
Having provided statutory protection, the sole administrative
contribution of the Province was to appoint John J. Kelso, a

Toronto newspaperman and the leading figure in the child
welfare movement of that era, to the post of Superintendent
of Neglected and Dependent Children.  Funding, staffing,
and administrative direction were initially provided total-
ly by the children's aid societies.  J.M. Gibson, the
Province's Lieutenant Governor, reflected the dependence on
voluntary societies in the following statement:

> "With children's aid societies in the centres
> of population, well organized and managed by
> earnest-minded people devoted to the work,
> searching out the children who are without
> parental care, neglected or abandoned, rescuing
> them from pernicious influences and surround-
> ings, ...   a network agency can be established
> in our community capable of accomplishing wonder-
> ful results ..." (18)

What was initially a purely voluntary children's aid
system was transformed into the system of today which, while
still composed of private agencies, is almost totally funded
from public sources and staffed primarily by paid profession-
als. [19]   How this transformation came about is a fascinating
study in its own right and not without relevance to modern
concerns, in that the model of an enabling statute linked to
voluntary sector administration is still available as an option
to governments, and especially but by no means solely for ex-
perimental programs that could prove short-lived.

What makes such a model particularly pertinent today is
the growing concern, both in and outside government, with the
accumulating pressures to increase the role of government in
Canadian society and the possible concomitant of a greatly-ex-
panded bureaucracy.  Many scholars and public figures in
Canada, the United States and Britain have highlighted the
concern with bureaucratic growth and have urged that we
search for alternatives to an  over-burdened govern-
mental system. [20]   Using the voluntary sector more fully

for administrative purposes is one such alternative.

In supplement to using voluntary agencies as major administrative units of government there is the practice of having an agency or individual volunteers serve particular facets of programs which, in the main, are handled within the public services.  Let me draw, again, upon the Ontario children's aid system for an example.  In the mid-1920's, as it continued to move steadily towards public funding and professional staffing, Charlotte Whitton was able to describe it in somewhat effusive terms as a working blend of  government responsibility  and private enterprise, in the following statement:

> "Nowhere in the world is there any welfare
> organization more happily blending the re-
> quisites of government responsibility and
> voluntary enterprise in the service of a free
> society than the Children's Aid Society, in
> its persisting pattern, particularly in the
> Province of Ontario.  It is neither wholly
> statutory nor wholly voluntary.  It is neither
> provincially centralized nor municipally iso-
> lated.  It is a delicately geared, precisely
> poised mechanism whose power flows from the
> combined strength of provincial and municipal
> authority, voluntary citizen management, and
> technically qualified administrative personnel.
> It is the statutory Delegate of the Crown
> found faithful through the years in the ser-
> vice of the children of the state."  (21)

There is also the variant of the U.S. Peace Corps or the Canadian Company of Young Canadians, where governments will turn volunteers into public servants, at least temporarily, while seeking to have them retain those attributes of the volunteer judged desirable for the public purpose being served. (22)

A still further reliance of governments upon the voluntary

sector in administration is related to the process of re-
fining "rough-hewn" legislation into workable administrative
rules, regulations and procedures.  The administrative
counterparts of the advisory committees and councils noted
earlier with reference to the policy processes, and the
open-ness of the administrative process to interest-group
activity, are cases in point. [23]

Then, too, certain legislation exists at the border-line
of public acceptance, and governments will work very hard
to win voluntary public acceptance or compliance, as in the
case of the recent seat-belt legislation in Ontario.  Some-
what related, but meriting special mention, is government's
reliance upon citizen support in giving concrete effect to
such policies as animal protection legislation; if government
had to rely solely upon paid inspectors to uncover every ex-
ample of abuse the system would function far less effectively
than at present.

Not all voluntary agency involvement with government is
supportive, of course.  Tom Wolfe's bitingly-funny essay,
"Mau-mauing the Flak-Catchers" [24] illustrates how difficult
the disenchanted clients of public programs can make life for
the public servant.  Experience in seeking to implement the
Federal Government's Indian Policy is a topical case in
point. [25]

(d) Government, Special Societal Concerns, and the
    Voluntary Sector

At a more-embracing level of government/voluntary sector
relationships there are two major societal considerations to
be noted.  The first is that the world of work itself is
changing, and radically, including a noticeable decrease in
the ratio of work-to-leisure time.  The second, not un-related
to the first, is that quality-of-life factors, as opposed to

material concerns, are playing an increasing role in
government policy decisions.

It is clear that both considerations bear signi-
ficantly on government/voluntary sector relationships,
and will do so increasingly as we move more strongly
into the post-industrial society. A special challenge
to the public policy and management processes is arising
as more people, from all social classes, have time to spare
for leisure pursuits and develop both a heightened awareness
of quality-of-life considerations and increased expectations
regarding government involvement with or support of these. [26]


2.      The Voluntary Sector Perspective

In some sense the relationships between government and the
voluntary sector are reciprocal, and it is appropriate simply to
view those issues raised in relation to government from the comple-
mentary perspective of the voluntary sector.

The voluntary sector is as concerned as government that the
latter retain its traditional and frequently re-affirmed commitment
to a pluralist society, and approach the voluntary sector with a
clear appreciation of the role of both government and voluntarism
in such a society. It clearly has a direct interest in assuring
that the policy and administrative processes remain open to voluntary
sector inputs  and that, where appropriate, policy-implementation
proceed through direct delegation of administrative responsibilities
to the voluntary sector or through some form of public service/
voluntary sector partnership. Finally, it is of critical importance
to the voluntary sector that government address itself carefully to
the implications of the changing world of work, the new leisure
society, and quality-of-life priorities [27] -  and in recognition
of the import of these for government/voluntary sector relationships.

There are additional factors, however, meriting attention
in viewing voluntary sector/government relationships from a
voluntary sector perspective. These range from the general con-
sideration that government actions constitute an important element
in the social framework within which voluntary agencies function,
to such highly specific concerns as licensing, tax credits, and
inspections.

Even where voluntary agencies operate in areas where govern-
ment is not directly active they function within and interact with
an overall social milieu of which government is an important element.
However large, active, well-established or solidly-financed it is,
a voluntary agency remains only one part of a complexly-interacting
social environment in which, as already noted, government is an
increasingly important actor. Accordingly, an understanding of the
role of government in Canadian society, now and in the future, is
of more than academic interest to voluntary sector practitioners.

Moreover, while in a particular era an agency can justifiably
regard government as a social institution quite distant from its
own day-to-day concerns, Canadian society is so dynamic that this
can change virtually overnight. An agency may be brought to a sud-
den and sharp awareness of the need for government legislative action,
government tolerance or support of its initiatives, or government
action complementary to its own. Each sector has its domain, but
the boundaries and interactions can and do change, and an agency
unaware of the structure and functioning of government can find it-
self ill-prepared to adjust to such changes.

Where an agency must stay in close and active contact with
government, the value of understanding how it operates is of course
very much greater. Managerial and professional personnel educated for
the voluntary sector, and with their work experience limited to it,
can find the world of public policy and administration quite mystify-
ing. Even with all the bridges that exist between the two sectors,
and happily there are many, each has its own unique culture, termi-

nology, and ways of doing things.

Differences between the sectors can impede understanding and communication to such a degree that it is clearly in the best interests of voluntary sector agencies wishing to move optimally in their relations with government to learn all they can about how public decisions are taken and implemented. Moreover, understand-ing is only the first step; there are special analytical and commu-nication skills required in using such understanding to good effect, as well as facilitative relationships to be established wherever feasible. [28]

Some agencies depend heavily and even solely on government funding, in either or both of the areas of capital and operating funds. If they fail to come to an understanding of how public funding decisions are made and priorities established they leave themselves vulnerable to vagaries of the process, where an advance understanding might have permitted influencing decisions in their favour. Even relatively pedestrian matters like licensing and build-ing inspections can have favorable or unfavorable outcomes depending upon the skill and understanding with which they are approached.

Much of what has been stated to this point applies equally to the five categories of voluntary agencies noted in the earlier "definitions" section. There is one category of voluntary agency, however, whose very reason for existing requires that it understand the intricacies of government and develop the skills to influence it in the service of agency objectives. This is, of course, the issue-oriented agency, committed to fundamental changes in existing social relationships and institutions or in the bio-physical environ-ment.

There is a very difficult arena of strategic decisions and action-alternatives to be entered by those wishing to emulate the Saul Alinskis or Ralph Naders. It is an arena where it is important to know how government policy processes operate and at what points external influences can most strategically be applied. It is also

one where it is equally important to know how action systems are
developed to implement policies (and on occasion significantly
modified by public servants to meet action exigencies) and, again,
how such development and implementation can be beneficially in-
fluenced.

As this is being written the Olympics are in process, and
a useful analogy can be drawn from these. Some social action groups
approach government from the stance of a heavy-weight wrestler,
seeking to meet the government in head-on confrontations, when what
is needed is the subtlety and finesse of an expert in judo who,
probing sensitively to discover the areas of vulnerability of his
opponent, can with skill resolve a bout in his favour with an oppo-
nent who is basically very much stronger than himself. One can ap-
plaud the courage of head-on confrontations with intimidatingly-
powerful governments, while deploring the arrogance and short-sight-
edness which judges more sensitive approaches unnecessary.

The word "opponent" in the above analogy is a value-laden one,
so let me off-set it somewhat by stretching the analogy a little
further. The real-world interaction process is on frequent occasion
closer to a fantasy version of tag-team wrestling, where the teams
have free-floating members who can shift readily from team to team.
So much of what social actions groups are seeking strikes a responsive
chord in government. As a result forces which, through confrontation,
are quickly ranged in opposition, may by more sensitive approaches
be marshalled in support of the objectives being pursued.

In brief, then, social action groups in the voluntary sector
need the knowledge and skills of the lobbyist in seeking to influence
governmental processes in the service of their ends. Moral indigna-
tion can be an excellent moving force, and a rallying point for
bringing like-minded people together in a voluntary agency, but it
can too quickly expend itself in fruitless action if it is not com-
plemented by an understanding of the dynamics of public influence,

and the skills to use this understanding. [29]


3.      The Perspective of Society-at-Large

        It seems appropriate to at least indicate that there is a
third perspective meriting consideration in examining government/
voluntary sector relationships; namely, the perspective of society-
at-large.
        Government and the voluntary sector are only two facets of
Canadian society, and how they interact can have marked effect on
other facets.  The business sector with its new concern with social
responsibility is an obvious case in point; [30]  so, too, are
labour and education.  Accordingly, they have a right to involve
themselves, and to be involved, in issues of government/voluntary
sector relationships.
        A direct implication of this point for the
purposes of the present report, and perhaps not requiring elabora-
tion, is that both government and the voluntary sector, in consider-
ing interrelationships from their separate perspectives, should
retain an awareness that each operates as one element only in the
larger Canadian and world societies.  What may seem desirable,
feasible and proper from a narrower perspective may on reflection
be recognized as inappropriate when the needs and potential in-
fluence of the larger environment are considered.  Where the core
of an educational programme designed to improve voluntary sector/
government interrelationships would focus directly on these two
sectors, therefore, a more complete programme would  seek to develop
an understanding of the role and influence of the other major
sectors, and the impact of government/voluntary sector relationships
on them.

CONCLUSION

Government and the voluntary sector interact in many ways. Government, with its special concern for the common good and its commitment to the limited role expected of government in providing "particular" goods, must take cognizance of the voluntary sector: leaving it free to do those things it does best, supporting it when justified in terms of the common good, regulating it as appropriate, admitting it to the policy and administrative processes in keeping with the requirements of an open and participative political system, and at times using it as administrative agent or partner in implementing public policies.

The voluntary sector, in turn, must stay closely aware of the activities of government:    to play its appropriate complementary or supportive role in Canadian society and, on occasion, the antagonistic role required in pursuit of particular goods; to    understand the complexities of the public policy and administrative processes in order to enter into these more effectively; to seek the funding and the legislative or other policy/procedural support it may require and generally, in acquiring the understanding and skills required for effective government/voluntary agency interaction. Society-at-large, too, needs an awareness of the interactions between government and the voluntary sector, and affected publics should be free and prepared to enter the interaction system where they can support it or believe themselves threatened by it.

The interaction is not always a smooth or easy one, and seldom is it optimal when measured against the objectives sought by each sector in the interaction process. In part this is inevitable from the very nature of the process; the perspectives are different and the ends sought may conflict. In part, however, it stems from the lack, first, of a sympathetic understanding and appreciation of the respective roles, processes, and ways of behaving of the two sectors

and, secondly, of the requisite skills to move well in effecting required or beneficial interactions.

Both <u>understanding</u> and <u>skills' development</u> are part of the domain of education, training and development. So, too, are the processes of <u>clarifying values</u> and <u>strengthening positive attitudes</u>, which bear strongly on effective government/voluntary sector relationships. The purpose of following chapters, therefore, is to explore the potential of employing education, training and development as one major strategy in striving for optimal relationships.

FOOTNOTES

Chapter One

(1)     See David Easton, A Framework for Political Analysis,
        Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc.,
        1969 for a discussion of this concept.

(2)     Clague clearly states the problem of the Common Good versus
        the Individual Good in an article on citizen participation
        and the legislative process:

> Decisions are proposed and made on a grand scale
> affecting whole communities and whole societies,
> yet the individual human scale needs somehow to
> be protected and enhanced.  There is the greater
> good and there is the particular good.  Again,
> compromise can be too narrowly defined and ration-
> alized through the "greater good of all the
> people" arguments.

Michael Clague, "Citizen Participation in the Legislative
Process", in Citizen Participation: Canada, edited by James
A. Draper, Toronto: New Press, 1971, p. 33.

See also, Charles K. Warriner, "The Altruistic Impulse and
the Good Society", in Voluntary Action Research: 1972,
edited by D.H. Smith, Toronto: D.C. Heath, 1972, pp. 343-
355.  Warriner argues that voluntary association has an
essential role in maintaining both the common and the indi-
vidual good in a participatory democracy.

(3)     "The essential notion is that individual voluntary action,
        as defined here, is what we do, not because we have to, but
        because we want to, in view of the higher level psychic
        benefits it may give us and in view of some commitment to a
        larger goal."

David Horton Smith, et. al., "Types of Voluntary Action: A
Definitional Essay", in Voluntary Action Research: 1972,
edited by D.H. Smith, Toronto: D.C. Heath, 1972, p. 163.

(4)     Refer to Ibid., pp. 173-175.


(5)     For a discussion of the appropriateness of these two terms,
        see, Ibid., pp. 163-169.


(6)     Anderson, Moore and Miller present an interesting comparison
        between the extent and pattern of need fulfillment in volun-
        teers and that of employees in John C. Anderson, et. al.,
        "Need Fulfillment of Paid and Volunteer Workers", an essay
        funded by the federal Citizenship Branch,   Canadian
        Secretary of State, (      ), 12 pp.


(7)     For a thorough consideration of the various determinants of
        volunteer motivation see, David Horton Smith and R.D. Reddy,
        "An Overview of the Determinants of Individual Participation
        in Organized Volunteer Action", in Voluntary Action Research:
        1972, edited by D.H. Smith, Toronto: D.C. Heath, 1972, pp.
        321-337.


(8)     Refer to Jerry G. Bode, "The Voluntary Association Concept
        in Twentieth Century American Sociology", in Voluntary
        Action Research: 1972, edited by D.H. Smith, Toronto: D.C.
        Heath, 1972, pp. 51-58 for a summary of past and present
        notions of what organizations qualify as voluntary associa-
        tions.


(9)     David Horton Smith, "Research and Communication Needs in
        Voluntary Action", in Volunteerism: An Emerging Profession,
        edited by John G. Cull and Richard E. Hardy, Springfield,
        Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, Publisher, 1974, pp. 111-115.


(10)    The concept of a heterogeneous market will be treated in a
        later section.


(11)    See, Eva Schindler-Rainman and Ronald Lippitt, The Volunteer
        Community: Creative Use of Human Resources, Washington, D.C.:
        N.T.L. Learning Resources, Inc., 1971, pp. 5-19 for a dis-
        cussion of the interrelated concepts of democracy and volun-
        tarism.


(12)    Eriksson - Joslyn presents brief summaries of the generally

accepted doctrine of political pluralism and one of its possible antitheses, elitism.

Kerstin Eriksson - Joslyn, "A Nation of Volunteers: Participatory Democracy or Administrative Manipulation", in <u>Berkeley Journal of Sociology</u>, 18 (1973-1974), pp. 159-161.

The author's listing of the functions of the voluntary association in a pluralistic society bears noting:

> First, they (voluntary associations) serve to realize closely the ideal of participatory democracy by distributing power over social life among a very large segment of the citizenry ... Secondly, voluntary associations increase the individual's understanding of the functioning of social processes and the complexities of modern life as they provide access to participation in those processes. Third, voluntary associations serve as mechanisms of social change.
> <u>Ibid.</u>, pp. 159-160

(13)   It has been generally maintained that totalitarian societies have no real voluntarism of any degree. James Schultz ("The Voluntary Society and Its Components", in <u>Voluntary Action Research: 1972</u>, edited by D.H. Smith, Toronto: D.C. Heath, 1972, pp. 25-38) suggests an interesting variation of this judgment. He classifies voluntarism into four graduated categories:

1.   <u>General</u>, which involves both a highly developed voluntary sector, and a great degree of voluntariness in non-voluntary sectors (Israel);

2.   <u>Manifest</u>, which involves a strong voluntary sector and low voluntariness in the non-voluntary sector (United States);

3.   <u>Latent</u>, where there is a weak voluntary sector coupled with a high degree of voluntarism in the non-voluntary sector (Cuba); and

4.   <u>General de-voluntarism</u> where the whole society is generally lacking in voluntarism (Nazi Germany).

See, <u>Ibid.</u>, pp. 27-28.

(14)  Eduard C. Lindeman, "A Fantasy", introductory comments in
      Eva Schindler-Rainman and Ronald Lippitt, <u>The Volunteer
      Community: Creative Use of Human Resources</u>, Washington,
      D.C.: N.T.L. Learning Resources Inc., 1971.

(15)  Refer to Alan Frizzell and Elia Zureik, "Voluntary Parti-
      cipation:  The Canadian Perspective", in <u>Voluntary Action
      Research: 1974</u>, edited by D.H. Smith, Toronto: D.C. Heath,
      Co., 1974, pp. 253-276 for an interesting discussion of
      voluntarism in Canada as distinguished from other voluntary
      societies.

(16)  J. Grant Glassco, Chairman, <u>The Royal Commission on Govern-
      ment and Organization</u>, Ottawa: The Queen's Printer, 1962,
      especially Volume 5, Chapter 6, pp. 92-3.

(17)  See G. Bruce Doern and Peter Aucoin, editors, <u>The Structures
      of Policy Making in Canada</u>, Toronto: Macmillan Co., Ltd.,
      1971, 294 pp., for a thorough consideration of the role of
      these structures in Canadian public policy making.

(18)  Cited in Walter Baker, <u>Citizen Participation in the Adminis-
      tration of Government Policy:  A Case Study of the Children's
      Aid Society, 1893-1963</u>, Doctoral Thesis, Kingston: Queen's
      University, 1966, p. 45.

(19)  It is interesting to note, in reference to this point, that
      the Ottawa branch of the C.A.S. is beginning to use volunteers
      in more and more responsible positions.  In a personal inter-
      view with Mrs. Ruth Brown, Director of Volunteers, Ottawa
      Children's Aid Society (May 27, 1976), the following points
      were brought out:

      The various volunteer roles may be classified into three
      groups:

      a)  <u>Non-professional</u> tasks that would have to be done
          by professionals if there were no volunteer services;
      b)  <u>Needed services</u> that would not be given at all with-
          out volunteers; and
      c)  <u>Professional and semi-professional</u> tasks which would
          normally be done by paid staff but which have been taken over
          by professionally experienced volunteers under the direct
          responsibility - supervision of paid professionals.
          In these instances, the volunteers should perhaps be
          called, "unpaid professionals".

In addition to the above categories, the Board of Directors (i.e., the policy-makers within the C.A.S.) is largely composed of active volunteers.

Finally, Mrs. Brown recalls that there were <u>no</u> volunteers at Ottawa C.A.S. when she first worked there (1950). According to her recollection, the current upsurge in the numbers of volunteer staff began around 1963, with the opening of their upstart nursery. The total volunteer hours for 1975 were 19,378.

The many problems between professional staff and the volunteer are beyond the scope of the present discussion. The following articles could be referred to for a more detailed consideration:

Elizabeth M. Cantor and Margaret R. Pepper, "Of Course Training the Volunteer is Important, but, What About the Staff", in <u>Voluntary Action Readership</u>, Spring, 1975, pp. 10-15.

Esther Stanton, <u>Clients Come Last: Volunteers and Welfare Organizations</u>, Beverley Hills, Cal.: Sage Publications, 1970, 192 pp.
Ms. Stanton scathingly criticizes the social welfare agencies for what she terms "image manipulation". This critique should not be ignored.

Eva Schindler-Rainman, "A Unique Combination: Volunteers and Staff" <u>Monograph of Workshop,</u> June 23, 1976, 15 pp.

(20)    See particularly, Frederick C. Mosher, "The Public Service in the Temporary Society", in <u>Public Administration Review</u>, 1971, pp. 47-62, for a consideration of the growth of bureaucracy.

<u>In addition:</u>

Peter Drucker, "The Sickness of Government", in <u>The Age of Discontinuity</u>, New York: Harper and Row, 1969, where he offers and develops "reprivitization" as a solution to the growing bureaucratization of society.

J. Grant Glassco, Chairman, <u>The Royal Commission on Government and Organization</u>, Ottawa: The Queen's Printer, 1962, Volume 2, pp. 62-3, for the "make or buy" concept; and, finally,

The Fulton Committee Report, Great Britain, for "hiving-off".

(21)     The source for this quotation was the personal Kelso
         files, an old and unidentified newspaper clipping.
         While most widely-known through her years as Mayor of
         Ottawa, earlier in her career  Charlotte Whitton was
         actively involved in the welfare field, first as a
         practising social worker and later as a consultant.

(22)     See Bert and Kaye Deveaux, "The Enemies Within Community
         Development", in Citizen Participation: Canada, edited by
         J.A. Draper, Toronto: New Press, 1971, pp. 96-99 for an
         interesting discussion of the politics of the death of
         the C.Y.C. as an effective instrument for real social
         change.  The authors warn that government must measure
         their contribution to citizen participation in terms of
         what the citizens want, and not according to what the
         government thinks or wants them to want.
         "First, community development is a process, and thus is
         something other than a formula, a recipe that - if pre-
         cisely applied - will render exact results.  In fact, an
         outline of process presents a method for seeking, a method
         by which citizens may evolve their own formulas which serve
         them best" (my emphasis), ibid., p. 104.

         Hedley G. Dimock ("Social Intervention: Philosophy and
         Failure", in Citizen Participation: Canada, pp. 106-114),
         distinguishes three approaches for government or private
         consultants to intervene in the social welfare field: (1)
         paternalist, (2) neutral catalyst, and (3) collaboration.

(23)     It would be of interest to consider some of the literature
         on the organization of Canadian participation in Habitat,
         1976.  Especially important is "The Report of the Canadian
         National Committee in Preparation for Habitat", Habitat
         and Canadians, January, 1976, Senator S.L. Buckwold,
         Chairman, where the committee gives a critique of its own
         performance and offers some recommendations as to the
         nature of future  participatory efforts.

(24)     Thomas Wolfe, Radical, Chic and Mau-Mauing the Flack-
         Catchers (            ).

(25)     See Statement of the Government of Canada on Indian Policy,
         Canada Department of Indian Affairs and Northern Development,
         Ottawa:  Queen's Printer, 1969, and
         Citizen Plus, Indian Chiefs of Alberta, presentation to the

Right Honourable P.E. Trudeau, Prime Minister, the
Government of Canada, 1970.

The Indian Policy experience has its positive aspects
also.  That government would deliberately finance Indian
groups in order to strengthen their capacity to create
problems for administrators is an encouraging example of
government's recognition that "negative" influences in
the short term can translate into a highly-positive factor
in the longer-term, or when reviewed in the light of
higher objectives.

See also, Edward Rogers, "The Indian and Euro-Canadian
Society", pp. 331-350;
Marlene Castellano, "Out of Paternalism into Partnership:
An Exploration of Alternatives in Social Service to Native
People", pp. 351-361; and
Charles A.S. Hynam, "Community Development and the White-
Indian Problem", pp. 571-577
In Citizen Participation: Canada, edited by J.A. Draper,
Toronto:  New Press, 1971.

(26)    See Phillip Bosserman and Richard Gagan, "Leisure Behaviour
        and Voluntary Action", in Voluntary Action Research: 1972,
        edited by D.H. Smith, et. al., Lexington, Massachussetts:
        D.C. Heath, 1972, pp. 109-126.

(27)    Athena Theodore ("Social Change and Voluntary Action", in
        Voluntary Action Research: 1972, pp. 127-134) points out
        we should realize that the very nature of voluntary action
        involves social change: "What is especially to be emphasized
        is that voluntary action is synonymous with organized struc-
        tures for, or related to, social change.  In a sense, it is
        the embodiment of social change".
        Ibid., p. 127/

        Strangely enough, however, the inability or unwillingness to
        change and/or loosen up their own bureaucracies is precisely
        one of the reasons that the more traditional formal voluntary
        organizations are losing some support and relevance.
        See David Horton Smith, "Research in Voluntary Action Leader-
        ship", Spring, 1975, pp. 8-9, 30.

(28)    If this reference to required skills and contacts is not
        clear, one has only to reflect on the high financial premium

big business firms are willing to pay for information
about and assistance in working their way through the
government's decision labyrinths.  What is clear to
businessmen in hard dollars-and-cents calculations
becomes, on reflection, equally clear in the cost/benefit
considerations of voluntary agencies.

(29)    This is precisely one of the lessons learned in the
        student power movement of the 1960's and early 70's.
            The student-power thrust has been relatively
            successful when its strategy has been broad-
            based and militant enough to convince most
            students to support it and most authorities
            to respect it.  At the same time, that strate-
            gy has emphasized non-violence so as not to
            destroy the ultimate goals it sought, so as
            not to lose the large-scale sympathy of the
            student community, and so as not to bring
            powerful state repression down upon it.
        Steven Langdon, "The Politics of Participation: A Student
        Case", in <u>Citizen Participation: Canada</u>, edited by J.A.
        Draper, Toronto: New Press, 1971, p. 53.

(30)    See, Xerox Corporation, "A.I.D.E.', and "Make It Better",
        both internal publicity for their employee-volunteer
        programmes, and

        Dan H. Flan, Jr., "Executives as Community Volunteers",
        in <u>Harvard Business Review</u>, March-April, 1971, pp. 4 ff.

CHAPTER TWO:  Defining the Field of Education, Training and Development

Definitions.

The terms education and training are often used interchangeably, and development may be linked or confused with either or both.  Accordingly, it seems important at this stage to treat once again with definitions.

1.    Education is a process through which behaviour change in an individual is effected.  It has both formal and informal aspects.
Formally, we seek to educate someone when we try to add to their knowledge, improve their skills, or influence their values or attitudes in ways that will affect their behaviour in directions we judge, as educators, are positive ones; we actually succeed as educators only when behaviour does indeed change in the direction we had planned.  At its core, then, formal education is a strategy for behavioural change, and as a process includes a very broad range of possible approaches and methodologies bearing on a person's knowledge, skills, values or attitudes.
In addition to planned behavioural change there is the growth associated with informal education.  We grow as individuals through very many experiences falling outside formal educational processes.  It would be a grave error indeed to assume that growth can only take place through deliberately-planned experiences or, indeed, that formal and informal education necessarily lead in the same direction and are hence complementary.
Viewed from the perspective of the single individual in a democratic society, the educator's role is to assist him in all feasible ways to accelerate and enrich his unique potential and, in the process, to acquire the concepts, tools, approaches, skills and attitudes that will facilitate his socio-economic adjustment.  From the broader perspective of Canadian society or any given sector, education can be used as a strategy to adjust the individual's behaviour to special

social or sector requirements.

It is important to recognize that formal education is overwhelmingly used in the service of some other end. It is "manipulative", therefore, and hence is rarely value-free in nature. Yet there is a very wide continuum of manipulation, extending from education which is only marginally separated from the techniques of brainwashing, to the very liberal variety which aims only at accelerating and enriching individual potential (with the latter being value-constrained only but importantly to the extent that "accelerate" and "enrich" are normative words, with direction in mind).

2.    Training is one sub-set of education, distinguished as that aspect of education aimed explicitly at developing or strengthening particular skills, where facility can grow through repetitive practice.

To avoid later confusion, it should be clarified that throughout the report "education" is used in two senses. On its own, without qualification, it includes both training and development, in recognition that each of these is one of its sub-categories. When it is important to treat separately with training or development, however, "education" is that which is left in the broad definition when training and development are removed. Thus, in this narrower definition, we train someone to use a typewriter, to drive a car, to operate a lathe, to use a computer, to answer the telephone in a particular way. We educate someone in Canadian history (expanding their knowledge base), in analytical and conceptual thinking (developing skills of a non-rote nature), in the meaning of democracy and its implications for specific areas of action (clarifying values), in the value and meaning of the family in Canadian society (inculcating or strengthening attitudes judged desirable).

When the distinction is made between training and education as two separable activities, therefore, it turns on whether the activity

is narrowly-focussed, related directly to an identifiable work
task, and of a repetitive, rote nature (i.e. training); all other
planned behaviour change accelerating and enriching an individual's
growth is, then, education, save for that which takes place through
on-the-job work experiences - discussed, next, as "development".

3.   Development, like training, is a particular sub-set of education,
distinguishable in that it occurs "on-the-job", through work experi-
ence, rather than through formal off-the-job programs or activities.
        When Colonel Urwick, the grand old pioneer of management theory,
was asked at the age of 77 to identify on the basis of a life-time's
experience the most important single way to accelerate and enrich
one's strengths in management, he answered without hesitation, "Find
a good chief".  What Urwick said of management applies in very many
other occupations.  A sound educational programme can distill a great
deal from the experience of others and communicate this to partici-
pants, but there can be no question that working in a growth situation
has its own special educational value.
        We have, then, three ways of accelerating and enriching an indi-
vidual's growth, and these can be employed separately or in combina-
tion as required:  (a)  through individual study activities or formal
off-the-job programmes expressly designed, developed and implemented
to expand the individual's knowledge base, and/or develop or strengthen
non-rote skills, and/or provide opportunities to clarify values and
develop positive attitudes; (b)  through formal on or off-the-job
experiences structured to provide job-related skills amenable to
acquisition or strengthening through repetitive, rote learning; and,
finally, (c)  through work experiences expressly aimed at individual
growth.

Education as only one strategy for strengthening government/voluntary
sector relationships.

While the central tenor of this report is that education can be an important strategy in improving the relationships between government and the voluntary sector, it seems important to stress that it is only one among a number of major strategies available. Educators are no less prone than other professionals to place too much store in their area to the neglect of others, and can consequently use education or persuade others to do so, when even rudimentary analysis would point clearly to other strategies as preferable.

To illustrate rather than seek to present an exhaustive catalogue, relations between government and the voluntary sector can be less than optimal as a result of any of the following factors, alone or in combination:

- Inadequacies in the policy and planning processes leading to a confused or inappropriate sense of direction, [1] overlapping mandates and a host of more detailed planning deficiencies;

- Organizational problems related to first differentiating and subsequently integrating the programs, activities and discrete tasks of a government or voluntary agency, including problems of unclear jurisdiction;

- Problems related to the mobilization and effective deployment of personnel, finances, physical plant and matériel resources;

- Leadership deficiencies in either or both sectors;

- Inadequate systems for controlling on-going activities, and especially in areas where a voluntary sector/government partnership has developed and accountability is therefore shared;

- Lack of decision-making skills;

- Inadequate formal or informal communication systems;

- Poor representational skills in presenting an organization's case to others, and so on, through a very long catalogue of possible causes of less-than-optimal relationships.

To move on many of these areas education would be a useful ancillary strategy but totally inadequate on its own, and often of a lower order of priority. For example, if a voluntary agency judged itself

to be failing badly in terms of fiscal accountability or, of even more relevance to the present discussion, was so judged by its funding agency, it could invest heavily in up-grading the competence in financial management of its administrative cadre (education). Alternatively, it could recruit a top-notch financial management specialist (staffing) or hire an external consultant to design and lead in the implementation of new financial systems (systems develoment).

The simple point, then, is that when viewed as a strategy education should always be used in the knowledge that it must compete, on objective terms, with other possible strategies. This makes the task of determining educational needs and assessing the merits of education important ones, therefore, in the overall relationships' process, a point which is discussed quite fully in a later section.

To raise a question concerning the universal applicability of education as an improvement strategy is not, of course, to seek to take away from its value. That on occasion education can and should win out over other improvement strategies is clear. It comes very much into its own when existing problems or missed opportunities can be related directly to inadequacies in the knowledge base, skills, value systems and attitudes of public or voluntary sector personnel. [2]


## Education as knowledge, skills, values and attitudes.

Education has been referred to frequently, above, as focussing upon knowledge, skills, values and attitudes. Let me elaborate on these terms in the context of government/voluntary sector relationships although somewhat briefly, only, at this point. The purpose is to illustrate what could emerge as the recommended knowledge/skills/values/attitudes content of government/voluntary sector educational programs, if more rigorous needs' studies were carried out.

1.   Providing a firm knowledge base

The literature on voluntary agencies, and especially that emerging from the practitioners, highlights the seriousness of the lack of understanding of purposes, goals, priorities, processes and activities on both sides of the relationship.  If voluntary agencies fail to understand the public sector processes through which policy is set, programs developed, resources allocated, leadership provided and control sought, politicians and public servants in their turn may operate from myths of the world of voluntary action that have little if any foundation in fact.

Each can learn about the structures and functioning of the other, through formal educational programs.  Each can learn far more than is now known about the respective roles of government and the voluntary sector in Canadian society. [3]   They can refine or enrich such knowledge by seeing it in the sweep of Canadian history, in its broader world perspective, and against the insights of the futurists.

In addition to such knowledge of a generally-useful kind, there is the knowledge related to a particular voluntary agency/government relationship.  The Unjust Society [4], for example, shining with a righteous indignation harnessed to support the Indian cause in relation to government, is replete with factual errors and hyperbole that even a modest amount of solid research could have avoided.  On the other hand, there are classic examples of government bumbling because well-meaning politicians or public servants totally mis-read the world they were seeking to influence.

2.   Developing useful skills

It is one thing to understand, working from an improved knowledge base; it is quite another to be able to put one's understanding to effective use through the application of appropriate skills.

One example of a skill that can be put to excellent use in the government/voluntary relationship is that of analysis.  The analytical skills of individual vary considerably; given a similar body of facts and comparable experience some can tease out the action implications readily, while others have far greater difficulty doing so.  There is also what may be the even more valuable  synthesizing or  systematizing  capacity - the ability to take isolated facts and see their systems interrelationships, their  wholeness .  There are skills in planning, in organizing, in policy analysis and development, in the mobilization and deployment of resources, in developing viable control systems, and in the critically important area of communications.  Any of these can be reviewed, studied, discussed with a view to understanding them; each is also a skill, however, which through education can be developed or sharpened.

Through formal education and training, and through work experiences of a growth nature, individuals in voluntary and government agencies can be assisted, then, to sharpen their analytical skills; to move more easily in the world of policy analysis and development; to communicate more effectively; to plan better; to develop work programs and activities appropriate to their plans; to estimate needed resources more accurately, mobilize them more effectively, [5] allocate them wisely with a due sense of action priorities, and control their use --- and so on through a very broad range of skills relevant to government/private sector interactions.

## 3.   Clarifying values

The literature reveals important value concerns in both government and the voluntary sector.

Individual politicians and public servants, for example, will profess commitment to citizen participation, to democracy in decision-making, to a pluralist society, and to the virtues of voluntarism. At the same time they may recognize somewhat uneasily that they're

not entirely sure what the terms mean, or what they imply for their
own actions. Moreover, certain other things they value,such as
strong leadership, accountability, efficiency and professionalism,
 are not readily reconciled with citizen participation and volun-
tarism.

Those in the voluntary sector may accept on a rational, surface
level the prerogatives of government; may acknowledge the need for
and virtues of an unbroken accountability line between the people
and the public services, and hence respect the principles of the
public service/Ministerial/Cabinet/Legislature hierarchy; may support
the Legislature's power of the purse and recognize, therefore, the
constraints of public funding. They may believe fully in a respons-
ive, responsible bureaucracy working for the common good rather than
their own particular goods. Yet, again, they may not entirely under-
stand all of these nor be able to reconcile them with what they value
in the voluntary sector. Then, too, volunteers can have their special
value concerns in terms of their own motivation; not every volunteer
is entirely comfortable about giving time freely alongside well-paid
professionals and public servants, and the interactions among profes-
sionals, para-professionals and volunteers bring their own special
value stresses. [6]

What is needed, therefore, is time away from task pressures for
leisurely but tenacious unraveling of interlocking and sometimes con-
flicting value strands, and preferably in the type of retreat setting
that encourages the by-no-means easy exploration of value concerns.
Needed, too, is some mix of private, individual time and the vigorous
group exchanges of the classic "university pub" sessions, supported
by the availability of appropriate resource personnel.

4. Inculcating positive attitudes

Clarifying values is a very personal activity and, in its es-
sence, non-directive in nature. Somewhat in complement to it, how-
ever, is a legitimate concern on the part of voluntary and government

agencies alike with encouraging the development or strengthening of attitudes, of ways of approaching voluntary sector/government inter-actions, that are judged conducive to effective performance.

As a very simple and obvious example, it is not uncommon to find individuals from both sectors approaching the relationship negatively, "willing to give it a try" but convinced that volunteers and bureaucrats are such different species they cannot possibly work well together. On a different plane, the history of the Federal Government's involvement with the poor is replete with examples of the dysfunctional nature of the attitude of benevolent paternalism so prevalent in the public services before the current era and by no means yet eradicated.

Attitudes of pessimism, mistrust, hostility, paternalism, lack of respect, condescension, intellectual arrogance, the overt or covert contempt of the professional for the amateur volunteer, and vice versa -- these and many more pervade the government/voluntary sector relationship. Happily, they _are_ amenable to treatment, through edu-cational programmes which place a concern with transforming dysfunc-tional attitudes into positive ones in balanced perspective alongside knowledge, skills and value concerns.

FOOTNOTES

Chapter Two

(1)     As Clague notes the problem of policy making in a pluralistic
        democracy is, at its most basic, dependent upon whether we
        have the "sheer stamina required to sustain the working-
        through of decision-making procedures that produce results
        that are democratic and technically competent".

        Michael Clague, "Citizen Participation in the Legislative
        Process", in Citizen Participation: Canada, edited by James A.
        Draper, Toronto: New Press, 1971, p. 31.

(2)     See, Wilson A. Head, "The Ideology and Practice of Citizen
        Participation", in Citizen Participation: Canada, edited by
        J.A. Draper, Toronto: New Press, 1971, pp. 14-29 for a dis-
        cussion of the key problems which have caused the newer types
        of voluntary associations and community involvement groups to
        fail in their dealings with government and society-at-large.
        Three of the most serious are: lack of real power, inadequate
        leadership, and - especially crucial to our present purposes -
        ignorance of the necessary information and knowledge to be
        able to confront government and society effectively.

        See, Ibid., pp. 22 ff.

(3)     In the same article, Head notes that the failure of volunteer
        groupings to achieve goals and the deep "mystification" in
        the face of these failures is due to "the general lack of an
        adequate analysis of the nature of power and its effective
        utilization".
        Ibid., pp. 24-5.

        Effectiveness demands the recognition of the following:
        "(a) the reality of power in the particular situation and how
             it can be dealt with;
         (b) the ability to organize and utilize the power inherent in
             citizens themselves for effecting change;
         (c) a realistic assessment of the power of the resistance
             blocking change; and
         (d) an analysis of the possibilities of achieving goals in
             view of the significance of this examination."
        Ibid., p. 25.

(4)    Harold Cardinal, <u>The Unjust Society: The Tragedy of Canada's
       Indians</u>, Edmonton: Hurtig, 1969, 171 pp.


(5)    It is interesting to note that a major cause for the breakdown
       of a good working relationship between volunteer and profession-
       al staff is the failure to delineate clearly the specific job
       content of the volunteer.  This is both an organizational and a
       staffing problem.

       See, Elizabeth M. Cantor and Margaret Pepper, "Of Course Train-
       ing the Volunteer is Important, But ... What About the Staff?",
       in <u>Voluntary Action Leadership</u>, Spring, 1975, pp. 10-15.


(6)    Schindler-Rainman presents an informative list of possible keys
       to good staff-volunteer relationships.

       See, Eva Schindler-Rainman, "A Unique Combination: Volunteers
       and Staff", <u>Monograph of Workshop</u>, June 23, 1976, 12 pp.

CHAPTER THREE:  Education as process and system

It is important to see education both as a process,
flowing through several key phases, and a system, with its
own special boundaries defining it as a system and its inter-
locking set of complementary units, roles, processes, programs
and activities.  It is a process because it flows over time;
because growth through education is sequential, cumulative and
should therefore be continuous, and because success in the task
of education, itself, is a procession of distinctive phases.
It is a system because many people, many institutional units,
and a range of different resources have to come together in
cohesive, systematic interrelationship before the education,
training and development judged required can take place.

EDUCATION AS A PROCESS

There are two major ways of examining education as a pro-
cess;  with a focus on the growth. phases of a single individual's
education or, alternatively, with a focus on the phases within
the educational process more generally conceived.

If the focus is on the particular individual, the concern
is to identify the various phases he does or should pass through
before, say, he becomes a competent professional (or, alternatively,
a volunteer performing well and deriving satisfaction from
voluntary activities).  In Plato's Republic he charts the optimal
path for developing philosopher-kings.  At a more mundane level,
in a recent article I suggest a phased approach to turning
"amateur" managers into professionals.[1]  While this approach to
examining education as a process has its clear merits, it seems
inappropriate here, if only because the concern is spread over
many diverse roles each requiring its separate educational path.
Let me reaffirm the simple point in this connection, however,
that education is not something that takes place on a "one-shot"

basis, through a single well-designed and implemented formal course, but a complex amalgam of formal education, skills' training, personal growth experiences and accumulating work experience. It is sequential and cumulative, because educational experiences flow into and reinforce each other. It is continuous, because at no point in an active life do growth experiences not influence behaviour.

The second approach, to examining education as a process and the one adopted here, is to look at the phases in a well-rounded educational programme; the educational process optimally followed regardless of the focus on precise roles, or the content of programmes. Following this approach, the process is judged to have six phases: needs' determination, design, assessment, development, implementation, and evaluation.

## 1. Needs' Determination.

It is a cause of major concern with the field of education that so many educators, and the administrators or groups they seek to serve, move into or continue year after year with extremely costly educational programs that rest on no firm foundation of demonstrated need.

Education is costly. It is no simple matter to expand a single individual's knowledge base; provide the opportunity and support for clairifying values, and develop supportive attitudes-- and we are looking at education in the context of many hundreds and even thousands of individuals, in extremely diverse settings and across two sectors. At the very least, therefore, we should know what it is we are about, and where our priorities lie, before we begin.

At its simplest, needs' determination involves finding answers to five basic questions:

- Who is it we want to educate? ( our market, client population);

- What areas of their behaviour, performance, do we
  want to change, strengthen? Alternatively, what
  profile do we have in mind regarding the end result
  (e.g. the "ideal" public user of voluntary services);
- At what stage do we judge our clients for educational
  services to be, currently, when measured against the
  profile; hence, what do we judge to be the size of
  the gap to be filled through education, in terms of
  knowledge, skills, values and attitudes? [2]
- Recognizing the costs involved and the overall dimensions
  of the challenge, what are our educational priorities?
- Relating back to previous questions what, precisely,
  are the problems or opportunities we identify that
  we believe suited to education as the key strategy?
  In terms of the range of alternative strategies, is
  education indeed the preferred route in the particular
  instance, or are there prior conditions to be met
  before an educational strategy can be usefully
  employed?

The needs' determination process itself can be rudimentary
or highly sophisticated, and it is a matter of judgement con-
cerning how much time and resources to invest in this phase.
My own judgement is that it is far too important to treat in a
cursory manner, and that the process can itself be educational,
if it is used to involve and possibly bring together in workshop
sessions everyone who has something to contribute to the exercise.
For central decision purposes the needs' determination phase is
a critical one. It is the diagnostic phase, where we seek to
establish precisely who needs what, where, on what schedule, and
against what longer-term plans.

On occasion agency decision-makers will recognize that in
the resolution of a particular problem education, training and
development appears relevant, and will provide a mandate to
educators to proceed. Yet where the decision-maker is not

a professional educator, it may be that what he <u>perceives</u> as required is, in fact, the wrong approach. Educators will always need to consider the mandate they are given, therefore, in light of their own professional judgement of the actual requirements of the situation. This suggests that agency decision-makers and educators should work together in assessing educational needs.

Moreover, it is stressed in a later section how important a role the individual has to play in his own education and this should include, on occasion, involvement in needs' determination. What is required in identifying educational needs, therefore, are the complementary perspectives of the individual, the central decision-maker and the educator, combining in whatever degree of sophistication in needs' assessment the situation permits.

## 2. Design

Once educational priorities have been determined, and some clear determination made of client population and desired end result, the next phase is to examine the extremely varied approaches to meeting identified needs, with a view to designing appropriate educational programmes.

This is a task for professional educators, working closely with their clients (both those to be educated, and those who are using education as a preferred strategy). On the one hand the range of alternatives in program design and methodologies is today so great that only a professional educator can deal with it competently; on the other, the design ideally "evolves", against as clear an understanding of client needs as feasible - and the needs' determination phase has a valuable tendency to flow into the design phase and be refined in the process.

The rich range of available educational strategies is one of the most encouraging things about the modern education scene. Let me list a number of these strategies, commenting briefly upon them where appropriate:

(a) - <u>Individual study</u>, with the individual having available to him well-equipped libraries and other resource centres.

(b) - <u>The traditional lecture</u>, which seems to be in some disrepute today but which remains important. In addition to its role in conveying required facts, individuals are on occasion exposed through the lecture method to an inspired speaker who, touching a responsive cord, can significantly influence their lives. Yet even the lecture method is changing today for the better; there is available a sizeable range of audio-visual aids which, properly used, can considerably enrich a lecture for participants.

(c) - <u>The Socratic Dialogue</u> is an important variation of the traditional lecture, through which the educator becomes part teacher and part process expert, seeking to involve participants in continuous give-and-take dialogue.

(d) - <u>Workshops, seminars and syndicates</u> provide interesting variations of the traditional lecture method and are often used in complement to it. Working in smaller groups of from five to nine participants (these numbers are by no means inviolate), participants become very actively involved in the learning process, with the role of educator being that of stimulator, guide and catalyst, rather than formal teacher.

(e) - <u>Other small-group techniques</u>. , Used in conjunction with such smaller groups, or as variants in their own right, are such newer techniques as role-playing, the use of simulation, involvement in business games (and one can envisage "voluntary/ government sector games" of a similar nature), and the use of programmed instruction.

(f) - <u>Retreat sessions</u>, mentioned in an earlier context, are also a useful educational approach, bringing public and/or voluntary sector personnel together for sessions focussing on values and attitudes, in settings chosen especially for their retreat atmosphere.

(g) - <u>Skills' training</u> now takes many forms, both on the job and in formal training courses. There are training instruments and other special methodologies available in relation to many skills' areas although, in general, this is one area where particular call is made upon the insight and ingenuity of educators and managers in custom-tailoring skills' development programs to specific needs.

(h) - <u>Written materials</u>. The circulation of material prepared specifically with educational ends in mind can be an important strategy. Research papers, "think pieces", articles by practitioners, the development of an abstracts series are all cases in point where written material can be an educational tool.

(i) - <u>Development experiences</u> should clearly figure in a list of optimal strategies. These can range from short assignments to other units or task forces, to lengthy and carefully graduated career assignments such as those of the Federal Government's Career Assignment Programme (CAP).

(j) - <u>Formal university and college programs</u> should also be mentioned, of course. Many organizations make intelligent use of study leave, and this clearly has applicability in the spheres of government and the voluntary sector.

(k) - <u>Sabbaticals</u> merit consideration. Until recently these have been the exclusive preserve of the universities, and it is difficult to understand why. There seems no question that certain roles in our large public

and voluntary organizations are particularly demanding
ones, in relation to which a regular opportunity
every several years for extended "renewal" leave
could be highly beneficial.

This by no means exhausts the various strategies available.
The message, however, has probably been given in a sufficiently -
explicit way; in the design of educational programs, educators
should be alert to any and every opportunity to promote valued
behaviour change, and stay abreast of the very considerable
range of methodologies now available.

## 3.   Assessment

At the point in time when educational priorities have been
clarified and the ways of meeting these determined in at least
a preliminary way, those using education as an improvement
strategy should seize the opportunity to take a hard look at
the program they are about to embark upon. The aim would be to
assess it in terms of its design specifications, the costs likely
to be involved, the time factor, and the alternative opportunities
for investing both resources and time. [3]

## 4.   Development.

With needs determined, appropriate programs designed in
terms of specifications/time/costs, and the assessment phase
completed, the process moves into the actual development of the
educational programs themselves.

This involves the translation of design phase results into
operational terms; the fleshing-out of the design in terms of
detailed program schedules, substantive content, methodologies,
dates to be held, teaching and other resources to be employed,
location and travel logistics, who will be responsible for
administration, and so on.

In a sense this is, then, a refined "design" phase - which
is why "design and development" are often referred to as a

single phase.  It seems useful to consider them separately for
two reasons: the first, to permit inserting the assessment phase;
the second because, in a subsequent discussion on education as
a _system_, rather then as a process, it will be suggested that
one always has to answer the question of who will handle a
particular phase - and in this respect, design and development
can on occasion be meaningfully separated.

5.    Implementation.

      During the development phase certain implementation steps
may be       taken.  In the course of refining the design by
identifying actual teaching resources to be used, for example,
decisions can only be taken after the desired resources have
been contacted and have agreed to participate.  Nevertheless,
major implementation steps constitute a separate phase.
      In the implementation phase, design and development planning
is translated into ongoing programs, and these are administered.
Participants enter the programs and have to be duly accommodated.
Physical space is required and has to be booked, properly pre-
pared, and administered while in use.  Teaching aids have to be
on hand, and put in place as needed - and so on, through the
many implementation details so important to assuring a program
its professional quality.
      All phases in the process are important, but the primary
educational impact occurs during the implementation phase, and
this can never be left to chance.  It must be _managed_ by those
competent to do so-and as will be noted in a later section,
educational design and development personnel do not necessarily
make the best educational administrators.  It is possible to
envisage, therefore, a team approach to education, where those
with strengths in needs assessment, and knowledgeable about
the various available strategies, start the process moving in
the right direction, thus paving the way for a development phase
handled by those skilled in detailed design and development,

and leading in turn to the administration of programs by those
particularly suited to educational administration.  Needless
to say, of course, such refinement into roles is feasible only
in the larger organizations.

6.   Evaluation and recording

These two steps are grouped together, for discussion
purposes, as they share much in common.

In an era when the costs of education are mounting, and
there is growing concern over whether investment in education
has a suitably-large payoff, evaluation is most important.
During this phase, results are measured against the objectives
and priorities originally established during the needs' deter-
mination phase, drawing upon whatever indicators of success can
be identified.  The state of the art in evaluation is still quite
primitive, however; we use our judgement, and the experience of
others, in fashioning appropriate evaluation instruments.

Because we are still pioneering in so many areas of educa-
tion, it seems important to ensure that we record our experiences,
at the very least in significant new initiatives, not only for
evaluation purposes but also in order that others can profit
from both our successes and our failures.  Too many imaginative
programs are conducted on a one-time basis and no records kept,
which means that in an area where educators can learn so much
from each other this opportunity is lost.

7.   The Educational Process in relation to Training and
     Development.

As outlined above, the process relates primarily to formal
educational programs, implemented away from the job.  A critical
element of the design phase, however, is to examine the relative
merits of formal educational programs, training programs aimed
at developing or strengthening direct job-related skills, and
on-the-job developmental programs built around selective work
experiences.

The needs' determination phase may lead, in the design phase, to any one of these three as the preferred route, or a combination of the three. In any event, the subsequent phases of the process (assessment, development, implementation, recording and evaluation) apply equally to each. The implementation of on-the-job development programs, for example, requires great care: in uncovering suitable growth assignments; in matching these to individual competencies, preferences, and growth needs; in arranging the logistics of an assignment; in meshing it with formal education and/or training as required, and in generally administering the program.

## EDUCATION AS A SYSTEM

Education is then, a process, with its distinctive phases. It is also a system, in that to carry out the process successfully many different sub-systems, processes, people, and units are involved, often in complex interrelationships. [4]

To illustrate the systems' nature of education, rather than explore it more definitively, it is proposed to focus on seven elements or actors of the system: the voluntary sector and government generally; the individual; the individual voluntary or government agency; the managerial cadre; the Voluntary Service Coordinator; external education institutions; a possible role for an intermediary catalyst functioning in interaction with the other major roles. Finally, the need is indicated for an educational network, encouraging the economies of scale and shared experiences.

1.    The role of government and the voluntary sector, generally.

Because our focus of concern is the relationship between government and the voluntary sector, clearly the two sectors are actors in the educational system under discussion. The point was made in an earlier section that they have different needs,

resources, and priorities, and will therefore approach educat-
ional concerns from their distinctive perspectives.

A significant point in considering the two sectors as actors
in the system, however, is that each is of course an extremely
diverse collection of separate entities, with each entity having
its unique perspective. Government comprises the Federal Govern-
ment, ten provinces, two territorial councils, numerous regional
governments, and many hundreds of municipalities, each inter-
acting with the voluntary sector in its own way. Each juris-
diction includes, in turn, legislative, executive, and public
service arms, with each arm being itself composed of many
separable entities in terms of educational needs and possibilities.
Finally, there are innumerable para-public institutions in Canada
which, while not directly government agencies in the sense used here,
have their significance for the voluntary sector.

The voluntary sector comprises, first of all, the five
categories of agency noted in an earlier section: service-
oriented agencies, issue/cause - oriented agencies, agencies for
self-expression, occupational/economic self-interest agencies,
and philanthropic agencies. The educational needs and priorities
of a service-oriented agency, in terms of knowledge/skills/
values/attitudes, will differ from those of an issue-oriented
agency. Moreover, each category is itself composed of very
many agencies of different size, longevity, wealth, objectives,
orientation to government, operational efficiency, overall
effectiveness, and many other dimensions important to education.

Notwithstanding the striking heterogeneity of the two
sectors there is still point in looking at them as single actors
for certain very limited purposes. Voluntary agencies generally
may be brought to some minimum common base of understanding in
terms of the role both of government and voluntarism in Canada
and become convinced, therefore, of the importance of giving
some consideration to the health of the government/voluntary
sector relationship. In turn, government may be brought to

re-affirm its commitment to pluralism and its generalized
support for voluntarism (in the way the Nixon Administration
did so strongly in the United States), at all juristictional
levels. As a result, an overall milieu supportive of more
focussed educational initiatives can be achieved. The action
implications are that some educational resources should be
turned to the generalized task of working with the voluntary
sector and government at large.

## 2. The Role of the Individual

While education can be discussed in terms of the needs of
a system overall, the needs of a particular sector, or the
special needs of an individual agency, the point of final focus
is always the single individual. It is he, operating within
the agency, sector, and overall system, whose behaviour change
is sought. This granted, there remains the key issue of whether
to seek to educate the individual through the traditional "teacher-
student" relationship, where the teacher seems at times to be
at the centre of the process rather than the student, or whether
to seek to provide a milieu in which, for educational purposes,
the individual is clearly the focal point.

Today, there seems very little disagreement among pro-
fessional educators that any viable educational system must
place the individual at its centre. In a perceptive article
Jill Bodkin of the Federal Public Service Commission describes
the healthy trend in education towards producing "individualized,
competence-based, learning systems". She gives the rationale
for such an approach as follows:

> The adult learns when, where, and how he chooses.
> Rarely does the traditional training course coincide
> with his recognition of a need to learn and with his
> willingness to undertake that learning ... The more
> adventurous institutions, therefore, offer their clients
> educational programs which encourage the individual to
> develop a personal learning profile, which he follows,
> testing his accomplishment when he is ready, and up-dating
> his results and changing needs. 5

While the need to place the individual at the centre of
any learning program may be self-evident, achieving this requires
certain changes in current approaches.  It implies, for example,
access for an individual to the means of diagnosing his
educational needs.  It requires the individual career planning
that flows from needs' assessment, coupled with far more
sophisticated organizational manpower planning than currently
exists within most public and voluntary agencies.  It also
requires a wide range of appropriate learning resources readily
accessible to the individual, and with this a change in role
for the educator from that of "teacher" to one of adviser or
integrator - a most significant change in role.  Finally, it
requires flexible evaluation tools, themselves a far cry from
the standard group examination, at set dates, that seems to
constitute evaluation in much of our present education.

As noted earlier both voluntary and government sectors
are composed of very many individuals.  Moreover, the inter-
actions between the sectors take place among individuals.  It
is the individual public servant, volunteer, or voluntary
agency employee whose knowledge base, skills, values, and
attitudes are of concern.  While at times, therefore, the common
practice will be adopted of measuring success in education by
the number of courses offered, or the number of professional
educators employed, the question of whether we have succeeded
in improving government/voluntary sector relationships through
education will turn in the last analysis upon how successfully
we have motivated the single individual to seek his personal
growth, and assisted him in achieving this.

3.    The role of the individual agency and its in-house
      educational facilities.

The "make-or-buy" issue is an important one in the field
of education, training and development.  The larger public and
voluntary agencies always have a choice of developing in-house

units to take care of their educational needs or, alternatively, of buying them from external sources.[6]
Even where the decision is taken to rely heavily upon outside agencies there are certain educational functions that must be performed in-house. Career counselling is a case in point. So, too, is the responsibility for preparing overall educational plans and learning profiles, and needs' determination more generally must be integrally related to the unique purposes of the individual agency. Then, too, there is the responsibility to be a knowledgeable broker in searching out suitable external services. Education itself fits within and must therefore operate in conjunction with the staffing, manpower planning and career planning aspects of the broader personnel management system.

Quite apart from providing essential background activities there is also a place for in-house units to perform direct eductional activities. In certain knowledge and skills areas there are, as yet, no appropriate external units on which the system can depend, although it is a healthy sign that more and more colleges and universities are reaching out into the world of their clients to seek to determine what their real educational needs are and, in turn, to structure programs that will meet these. Nevertheless, such initiatives have been slow in developing; until we make far greater progress in university/government/ voluntary sector interaction than we have to this point, therefore, there will continue to be a strong need for in-house educational activities. And whatever the willingness of the universities and colleges to provide relevant programs there will always be areas peculiarly suited to in-house education.[6] In-house units must also take responsibility for the design, development and administration of developmental work experience programs; the wise agency will ensure that its personnel have the opportunity to grow through selective work assignments.

Not every voluntary or government agency has structured itself formally for educational purposes, of course. There are striking variations from jurisdiction to jurisdiction

in government, and agency to agency in both sectors, in
whether anyone at all has been assigned the task of considering
or using education as a strategy in meeting objectives.  It
is necessary, then,   to move with extreme caution in seeking
to generalize about the role of the individual agency.  Whatever
the areas of uncertainty, however, the following three assumptions
can safely be made:

(a)  No matter what initiatives are taken to develop an
overall milieu supportive of educational efforts, or how
sensitive we are to the vital role played by the individual
himself in the educational process, the role of the agency in
intermediary and supportive terms will be a vital one.  The
individual agencies will decide whether or not to give priority
to educational initiatives; whether to release their personnel
for formal education and support them where necessary; whether
the key decision-makers, themselves, are prepared to allocate
time  to their personal education and development; whether to
use work-experiences for individual growth purposes - and so
on through myriad educational requirements.  Governments can
decide to make educational resources available to the individual
agency, and central governmental agencies and voluntary associa-
ations can affirm their support of initiatives, but the in-
dividual agency remains a vital link in the chain between the
centre and the individual to be educated.

(b)  Agencies will differ, and very significantly, in
both their willingness and their capacity to use education as
a strategy to improve government/voluntary sector relationships:

(i)   many agencies can legitimately ignore the government/
      voluntary sector relationship and may have no interest
      in it other than that shared by society at large.
      This implies that a key concern is to identify the
      market for educational programs very carefully.

(ii)  the great majority of voluntary agencies, and very
      many government agencies, currently provide little

beyond initial orientation and narrow job-related training.
Those who base their conception of the current state of
education upon what they know of its use in the Federal
Government, in several of the provinces, and in certain large
voluntary agencies, therefore can have a distorted picture of
the general readiness of the two sectors to enter into educational
programs.  The action implication of this is that those wishing
to take or encourage sector-wide initiatives will have to be
content with minimal progress with very many agencies, even
where a willingness to become involved exists, simply because
of the rudimentary nature of existing educational facilities.

(iii)  Where the individual agency is equipped or can
equip itself to participate in educational programs, the role
of an in-house educational officer or unit will be an important
one.  In the first place, sector-wide or dual sector programs
will require a recognized point of contact within the individual
agency; a nodal point in the network.  Secondly, as noted in
an earlier context, no matter what programmes are offered
centrally, the educational process has certain elements that
can only be properly handled within the individual agency.

4.    The Educational Importance of Managers and the
      Organizational Milieu.

In addition to the behaviour change induced by formal
education programs and carefully-designed work experiences,
the organizational milieu itself is important.  Let me use an
example from the voluntary sector.

A group in Toronto raised the funding for, designed,
developed and subsequently managed a large co-operative school,
camp and family recreation program.  Children were admitted to
the school as young as 2½ years old, and hence it had a nursery
school section.  Consistent with its particular educational
philosophy the project's directors sought to structure a
physical environment that would permit children to make the
maximum number of decisions personally and hence allow the

teachers to say "no" only when absolutely essential, on the
assumption that optimal growth requires such individual decision-
making. When they built a pirate ship, for example, with an
intimidatingly-high crow's nest approachable only by a vertical
ladder, and gave 2½ year-olds free access to it, it was an
instructive experience to see how, left to their own devices,
the children would spend many hours developing the confidence
to climb the ladder. In building such confidence they also
tested out their capacity to climb and developed the capability
to do so. With no interventions by the teachers, therefore,
growth was taking place.

Milieu is far more than physical setting, of course, and
it cannot be too strongly stressed that the managers of our
government and volunteer agencies themselves play an extremely
important role as educators. That managerial responsibilities
inevitably include the role of educator derives from their
general oversight, responsibility for, and impact upon the
health of their particular agency's milieu. Managers do not
always realize how important a role they do play, even if only
inadvertently, in the education and development of their staffs.
In the example they set, in the day-to-day relationships with
their personnel, in the type of milieu they develop, and in the
specific assignments they give, they affect the growth of in-
dividual staff members. A manager "turned on" to education,
therefore, understanding its potential and having some of the
basic skills of an educator, can be an enormous educational
asset.

5.   The Voluntary Services Coordinator

A recent British publication deals at length with the
emerging role of the Voluntary Services Coordinator. [7] It
advocates that any agency, public or voluntary, which uses
volunteers in complement to its major reliance upon paid
professionals, should establish such a position. The purpose
would be to coordinate the acquisition, orientation, training,

development, and deployment of volunteers, and to watch over their special interests and requirements more generally.

This recommendation clearly has relevance to the present discussion of the educational system. The personnel units of agencies depending mainly upon paid personnel may tend to overlook the special educational needs of the volunteer, and a Voluntary Services Coordinator would be one agent for off-setting this tendency. Moreover, if as previously noted education is always to be seen in its context of broader agency activities, the Coordinator would help ensure this.

One possible actor in the educational system under discussion, therefore, is the Voluntary Services Coordinator, or his counterpart under different titles; full-time in the larger agencies making considerable use of volunteers, part-time and hence combined with other roles in those agencies using fewer volunteers.

6.    The universities and colleges.

There appear to be no existing university or college programs in Canada, even of a non-degree nature, aimed expressly at improving the government/voluntary sector relationship. Nor are many Canadian scholars making voluntarism the focus of their research activities. This is not surprising, perhaps, if the example of a parallel "relationships" field, business/government, is considered.

It is only recently that business/government relationships have become the focal point of more than an isolated course in a business administration or political science program. While the likelihood of one or more Canadian universities moving into educational and research programs of a business/government nature is now very high, this is primarily because events have come together in recent years to highlight the area and to foster through tangible support a willingness on the part of both business and government to encourage the universities to enter

the field. Moreover, and of equal pertinence, there are new roles emerging in both sectors bearing on interface activities (e.g., Public Affairs Officers in industry), justifying a distinctive educational speciality.

The point being made is that our universities and colleges are preoccupied in the main with well-established areas of scholarship and teaching, or with fitting their students for well-defined social roles.

The community colleges have moved into many para-professional and technical areas previously neglected at the post-secondary level. Within social work programs both the universities and colleges offer courses bearing on voluntarism as one concern within programs focussed on other roles. We can look to these institutions to provide programs for defined roles in both government and the voluntary sector, where the market demand is for post-secondary levels of education. We can also look to them to refine the pertinent knowledge base, where they can be attracted to government/voluntary sector relationships as a research field or to voluntarism more generally. Then, too, where an individual member of faculty has a developed interest and expertise in areas pertinent to the programs under discussion he may prove a useful educational resource. All of this said, there seem to be few signs of an emerging degree of interest in government/voluntary sector relationships even remotely parallelling that of the area of government/business relations.

While the universities and colleges are part of the overall educational system being discussed, therefore, they should not be looked to, at this time, for leadership. "At this time" is a necessary qualifying phase, however, in that in the United States voluntarism does appear to have become a focus for disciplinary and inter-disciplinary university research. This point probably merits some elaboration.

In January, 1969, when Richard Nixon gave his inaugural address  as President, he included the following statement on voluntarism:

> For the magnitude of our tasks, we need the energies of our people - enlisted not only in grand enter-prises, but more importantly, in those small splendid efforts that make headlines in the neighbourhood newspapers instead of the national journals. [8]

When, in following weeks, the Gallup poll found one out of every ten Americans willing to volunteer to resolve community problems, they judged important, Nixon moved ahead with dispatch to establish a National Program of Voluntary Action, led by a Cabinet Committee on Voluntary Action.  Support was also provided to an independent, private, National Centre for Voluntary Action (NCVA), having as its mission to inform, educate and assist interested people with regard to volunteer service.  By July, 1971, almost all major government departments had some form of volunteer program, and a great number of private Voluntary Action Centers had emerged.

Preceding such dramatic steps to stimulate voluntarism, and undoubtedly occurring in active response to them, a consider-able measure of interest in voluntarism became evident in the universities.  In June of 1971, the Association of Voluntary Action Scholars (AVAS) was formed to bring together scholars from many disciplines whose research focussed on "all kinds of non-coerced human behaviour, collective or individual, that is engaged in because of commitment to values other than direct, immediate renumeration"[9]    AVAS was supported initially by and subsequently maintained a close working relationship with the Center for a Voluntary Society (CVS) which, itself part of the prestigious NTL Institute for Applied Behavoural Science, was established to play "a catalytic linking role between the scholarly community, and the whole realm of practical, ongoing voluntary action, both in the United States and elsewhere". [10]

Under discussion at the present time is a CVS-NCVA project to develop and operate a most ambitious information collection, organization, storage, retrieval, and dissemination system to be known as the VOLINFLO System.  It is to be related

to all kinds of voluntary action, but with a special emphasis on the service-oriented volunteer programs of the United States.

Whether Canadian governments will seek to emulate or surpass the role of government in the United States in giving leadership to voluntarism remains to be seen. We must also wait to see whether the universities and colleges in Canada will develop a commitment to voluntarism as a legitimate focus for research and teaching activities and whether, consequently, a Canadian version of AVAS will emerge. Certainly, if VOLINFLO does become a working reality, the very least we must do is seek to gain access to it.

7.    An Intermediary Institution?

If major advances are to be made in using education as a strategy in improving government/voluntary sector relationships, one glaring deficiency of the existing educational system is the lack of a focal point to coordinate and give leadership to the required initiatives. The heterogeneity of the two sectors, the great spread among agencies in the strength and scope of educational resources, and the fact that many initiatives require action involving both sectors, combine to suggest that an intermediary institution is required. It should be independent of the voluntary sector, government, and the universities and colleges, but able to function as an intermediary in relation to them all in strengthening government/voluntary sector relationships.

That it must function at the meeting point between government and the voluntary sector is sufficient reason for establishing it separately from each. The case for not lodging it within a university or college setting rests in part upon the points noted in discussing why we cannot realistically look to the universities or colleges to give leadership to this area at the present time. It also rests upon its need to be able to draw together educational resources from many different sources. Finally, it rests upon    the nature of the task it must perform which, while drawing upon well-established areas of scholarship and relating at least tangentially to recognized professional and technical roles, exists at the meeting-point or within the interstices

of so many different research areas and practitioner roles.

8.    An Educational Network

      With or without an intermediary institution to coordinate
and give leadership to education initiatives, the size and scope
of the challenges being faced necessitate a network of educational
services and facilities.

      Agencies will share educational needs.  They will also lack,
individually, the numbers of potential "students" and/or the
educational resources to meet identified needs through their
separate efforts.  And while all phases of the educational pro-
cess demand a high level of competence its nature is such that
the core skills it requires can be readily adapted to a con-
siderable variety of different agencies and thus are able to
be shared among many.

      Initiatives taken in one agency or set of agencies will
prove to be relevant to others, and hence should be made known
across the network.  Then, too, different parts of the system
will be able to develop competence in particular aspects of the
educational process for all to use, simply because a functioning
network exists  to provide the more general services in complement
to those the specializing agency makes available to others.

      All in all, then, what is required if richness, diversity,
and the economies of scale are to be characteristic of the
educational system, is a functioning network.  The network will
act as a medium for sharing educational tasks, resources and
results in a meaningful way.  It will comprise the in-house
training and development units of both sectors, interested
universities and colleges, individual researchers and teachers,
Voluntary Service Coordinators or those in equivalent roles,
and the proposed intermediary institution if established.

FOOTNOTES

Chapter 3

(1)    Walter Baker, "Executive Manpower Requirements in
       the 1980's", in Executive Manpower in the Public Service:
       Make or Buy, edited by K. Kernaghan, Toronto: Institute
       of Public Administration of Canada, 1975, pp. 39-62.

(2)    For the most recent directory of Federal Funding Sources,
       and their criteria and applicability see, Colin MAY,
       A Summary and Cursory Analysis of Federal Funding Programs
       Available to Volunteer Organizations, Secretary of State,
       Branch of Citizenship, Government of Canada, May, 1975.

(3)    In the design and development of public works projects
       in government, there is an "approval for funding" phase
       between the design phase and actual implementation.  It
       is used, and valuably, for precisely this type of assessment.
       It is its parallel within the educational process that is
       advocated here.  Where educational projects have to be
       separately funded, of course, and an outside agency is
       involved, the "approval-for-funding" phase is mandatory,
       although not always carried out with the rigor it merits.

(4)    For a discussion of the nature and characteristics of
       a system see, Daniel Katz and Robert L. Kahn, "Organizations
       and the Systems Concept", in The Social Psychology of
       Organizations, New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1966,
       pp. 14-29.

(5)    Jill Bodkin, "Editorial: What is our Product - Courses or
       Learning", in                            p. 3.

(6)    See, K. Kernaghan, editor,    Executive Manpower in the
       Public Service: Make or Buy, Toronto: Institute of Public
       Administration of Canada, 1975; especially, pp. 39-62.

(7)    See, "Training for Voluntary Service Coordinators in
       Health and Social Services", The Volunteer Center,
       Great Britain, 1974 - 1975.

(8)     Joseph H. Blatchford, "Federal Volunteer Programs", in
        <u>Volunteerism: An Emerging Profession</u>, edited by John

        G. Cull and Richard E. Hardy, Springfield, Illinois:
        Charles C. Thomas, Publisher, 1974, p. 18.

(9)     David Horton Smith, "Research and Communication Needs
        in Voluntary Action, "in <u>Volunteerism: An Emerging
        Profession,</u> p. 127.

10.     <u>Ibid</u>., p. 128

CHAPTER FOUR:

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Conclusions

      Three general conclusions emerge from the present study as the basis for the specific recommendations which follow:

    - The field of voluntarism in general, and of government/ voluntary sector relationships in particular, is important to the happiness and well-being of Canadians.

    - Because this is so and because, further, it is clear that certain problems and challenges exist at the interface between government and the voluntary sector which lend themselves to educational solutions, it seems important that consideration be given to new educational initiatives aimed at strengthening government/voluntary sector relationships.

    - It is also clear that no reliable needs' studies have yet been conducted to determine educational priorities. This is of central importance in light of the size, scope, and diversity of possible educational initiatives which, at a surface glance, appear desirable.

      The paragraphs which follow expand upon these three conclusions, and draw together a number of ideas presented in different context in the main body of the report.

1.    The Importance of Voluntarism and the Government/Voluntary Sector Relationship.

      Being more conservative in our national character we might, as Canadians, want to deride those in the United States who, with "typical" American flamboyance, so extravagantly re-affirmed their commitment to voluntarism in the early 1970's. To do so would be unjust, however; behind the flamboyance

there is a deep and precious belief in the place of voluntary
action in a democratic society, and one which I would hope
we share in Canada. There is something fundamentally right,
in terms of democratic values, about the continuing commitment
to pluralism in our social decision-making, to the diversity of
ways of pursuing the things valued uniquely by individuals or
particular groups, and to the freedom of association that makes
such pursuit possible. And without in any way denigrating the
role of the paid professional in modern society, because that
is also markedly important, there is a special place for voluntary
action, issuing as it often does from different motivational
well-springs.

Voluntarism seems particularly important at a time in
our history when we are turning so frequently to government for
leadership in the face of increasing social complexity. Even
Peter Drucker, who in The Age of Discontinuity has launched a
violent attack on burgeoning bureaucracy, acknowledges the
growing importance of government's role; indeed, it is his
recognition of this that has led him and others to urge that we keep
government out of those areas where viable alternative social
agencies exist:

> Never before has strong, effective, truly performing
> government been needed as the central institution in
> the society of organizations. We need an organ that
> expresses the common will and the common vision and
> enables each organization to make its own best contri-
> bution to society and citizen and yet express common
> beliefs and common values .... We need a vigorous,
> strong and very active government. But we do face a choice
> between big but impotent government and a government
> that is strong because it confines itself to decision
> and direction and leaves the "doing" to others. [1]

No figures exist comparable to those for the United States to
suggest how many Canadians are currently volunteers. We may,
as a society, be less committed to voluntarism, although this
seems doubtful. If the previously-quoted Gallup Poll estimate
of 6 in 10 Americans willing to be involved in voluntary action
in areas they judge socially valubale does hold for Canada, then
we are dealing with a social factor of important dimensions.

Moreover, people of all ages, social condition, education and work experience fall into Gallup's 60%, and as we move further into the leisure society significantly more of today's working population will have time available for voluntary action. And unless we change our "action" orientation as a people, to embrace a more passive life-style, they will want to be involved; after all, voluntary action will be the only available social outlet for the energies previously channelled into paid employment.

We face many developmental tasks as a society, in all areas of social living. We have reached a level of material prosperity that has allowed us to look realistically at new quality-of-life concerns that went unresolved in the past, either because we lacked the resources to tackle them or, not unrelated, because they were lower on our scale of priorities than material concerns. Then, too, new challenges have arisen in direct response to our material growth.

What all of the above translates into is that we can expect to see exceptionally-strong growth in all five categories of voluntary agencies. This will be coupled with increasing pressures on government from all sectors of Canadian society to move on quality-of-life concerns, and yet not grow in its "doing" aspects. If this does happen, then government's inter-relationships with other sectors will become more active, and not the least with the growing voluntary sector.

## 2.    The Relevance of Education

At so many points in the body of the report I have sought to make clear that the government/voluntary sector relationship abounds in educational challenges and opportunities. Public servants, if they are to work increasingly with volunteers, need to be reassured of their appropriateness and competence. Volunteers, on their part, need to complement their energy and commitment with the knowledge and skills required to perform effectively, as there is simply no way we want voluntarism to become equated

with lowered performance standards and neither, of course,
need it be.  We could go on to list many more educational
opportunities related to the fact that in both sectors people
are currently operating from less-than-optimal knowledge, with
skills inadequate to full proficiency, troubled or with their
performance adversely affected by value concerns, and with
attitudes that are not at all functional.

To underline a point made in an earlier context not every
challenge or opportunity in government/voluntary sector relation-
ships can be met through an educational strategy.  Nevertheless,
whenever what is at issue is the potential from beneficial growth
in knowledge, skills, value-clarification, and attitudes, the
educator comes into his own.  This may seem trite or self-
evident to some, but it has been my experience that many decision-
makers are not at all convinced of the value of investing in
education.

The role of the educator in Canadian society is an important
one: the old adage, "those who can do and those who can't, teach"
is a spurious generalization which tells us more about those
who use it than about educators themselves.  Moreover, many
successful administrators, while not themselves educators, do
not hesitate to use education as a major strategy. [2] The task
of producing planned behavioural change among employees in a
single government or voluntary agency can be a formidable one.
Yet it necessarily pales into relative insignificance when
measured against the size of the challenge in the government/
voluntary sector relationship overall.  No clear description
exists of the variety of roles of a policy, managerial, pro-
fessional, technical, and operational nature involved in the
interrelationship, but it takes very little exposure or
imagination to realize how great this variety is.  Then, too,
if education is broken down into its knowledge/skill/value/
attitude components  this reveals still further the complexity
of the educational task.

In sum, it seems indisputable that there is great potential
benefit from working with relevant personnel of the two sectors

to expand and enrich the knowledge base from which they are
approaching their work and to develop or strengthen the many
different skills they need to use, as well as to provide them
with the time and resources to clarify the value and ethical
issues so important to their work.

There is one final point to be made in addressing the
relevance of education, and that is that it is not a task for
amateurs. Education is a professional endeavor, at its best
involving educators who combine academic excellence, very real
insight into and a large measure of empathy for the needs of
their "clients", a seasoned feel for the realities of the world
they are ambitiously seeking to equip their clients for, and a
sound understanding of and skills in applying selectively the
field of education's own particular methodologies.

3.    Determining Educational Priorities

In seeking to draft formal recommendations on the basis
of this study a dilemma was uncovered not unlike that expressed
by Dror of the Rand Institute when he visited Ottawa to give a
major address on policy analysis. In stressing both the vital
importance of his field and its infancy, he indicated that when
he matched his belief about the importance of policy analysis
in government decision-making against the size of the task,
and the incredibly-primitive nature of current forays into
the area, it tended to produce in him a feeling of being over-
whelmed. He went on to state, however, that he was rescued from
immobilization by his conviction that in an area where so much
was still at its beginnings every modest increment  of progress
would count greatly.

Drawing the parallel to Doror's position, it seems
appropriate that any and every educational initiative be encouraged,
simply because of the number and diversity of opportunities for
growth through education. The dilemma, of course, is that so
much has to be done with such limited resources that it may be
much the wiser course to hold off on major educational initia-
tives until reasonably-solid needs' studies have identified

more clearly where the educational priorities lie.

On balance there seems no reason why individual educators across the two sectors, and/or managers sufficiently seized of the importance of education, should not move at once to provide educational growth opportunities in relation tp particular agencies or particular interface concerns, and it is expected that this will take place.  Yet the potential returns from moving in some concerted way into the rigorous educational process described in the body of this report, with its first key phase being needs' determination, and to develop or round out the educational network also described, are sufficiently great to suggest that this is where the major effort should be directed in the near term.

FOOTNOTES

Chapter 4

(1)    Peter Drucker, <u>The Age of Discontinuity</u>, New York:
       Harper and Row, 1969, pp. 225 ff.


(2)    Let me give an example from an endeavour distant from
       voluntarism.  In the recent reorganization of the
       Federal Department of Public Works, it was discovered
       that many personnel were being asked to carry out new
       responsibilities for which they were totally unsuited
       by prior education or experience.  Accordingly, where
       a previous top management group had budgeted $80,000 a
       year for training and development, within two years
       the new management group had raised this to a budgeted
       $1.3 million and even then felt it had erred on the
       conservative side.  They were dealing in total with a
       personnel complement of 8,500, encompassing a broad
       range of professional, technical support, managerial
       and operational roles.  Many of these roles were in an
       important state of flux in terms of the qualifications
       required to perform effectively. They believed they
       would have been delinquent in their managerial respon-
       sibilities, therefore, had they <u>not</u> acknowledged this
       in the concrete way they did.

## RECOMMENDATIONS.


There are a number of intriguing initiatives in the literature
from Britain and the United States that appear to have merit for
Canada and concerning which, at the conclusion of a more exhaustive
study than this, recommendations should be formulated.  Indeed, a
number of such recommendations, of a preliminary nature, are scattered
throughout the body of this report.  A more limited approach has
been adopted in developing a final set of recommendations  for present
purposes, however.

The six formal recommendations presented below focus on what
it appears feasible for the National Council on Voluntary Action to
support at this time, in the absence of more definitive study. The
expectation is that at a subsequent date, and based on the action re-
sulting from implementing this first set of recommendations,   more
comprehensive proposals will be formulated.


## 1.    One-Day Conference, "Government and the Voluntary Sector"


It is recommended that the Council organize a one-day confer-
ence on the topic, Government and the Voluntary Sector, or support
an alternative agency in undertaking this task.

The purpose of the conference would be to explore interface
problems and challenges in a preliminary way, and as a consequence to
open up the topic of educational needs.  Participation should be by
invitation, with care being taken to ensure that all types of volun-
tary agency and all appropriate governmental agencies are represented.
Responsibility for designing, developing, and implementing the confer-
ence should be assigned to a conference chairman, supported by a
Council committee.

The workshop could be held on a cost-recovery basis, with the
costs being kept to a minimum and recovered from participant fees.

Alternatively, funding could be sought.


2.    A Series of Follow-Up Workshops:   "Education, Training and
      Development in Government/Voluntary Sector Relationships"

        Subsequent to the opening conference on "Government and the
Voluntary Sector" a three-day workshop should be held, repeated
for several groups of participants, to explore directly the topic
of education in relation to voluntary sector/government relationships.
Each workshop should comprise not more than 30 participants, and the
mix of participants could vary from a group drawn from only one sector,
or one segment of a sector, to a similarly-balanced mix to that of
the initial conference.
        The purposes of the workshop would be three-fold:  (1) to
ascertain the current level of understanding of and commitment to
using education as a strategy for improving government/voluntary
sector relationships; (2) to obtain as broad a range of insights as
possible on how we might proceed on concerted educational action,
and (3) to ascertain whether any sense of educational priorities cur-
rently exists.  In brief, the initial one-day conference and the
subsequent three-day workshops are seen as useful preliminary steps
in developing a sense of the value of more systematic needs' studies
and resulting action steps, and moving towards these.


3.    A One-Day Exploratory Session

        At the conclusion of the initial conference, but prior to the
workshops, the Council should host a one-day exploratory session on
the contents of this present report.  The aim would be to have a re-
presentative cross-section of government/voluntary agency represent-
atives help refine the report, and broaden it if necessary, into a

document that could provide structure to the workshop discussions.

It is believed the exploratory session could be kept to a single day if the following two steps are taken: (i) the report, in its present form, is circulated to all participants well in advance of the session, and (ii) participants are encouraged to provide initial feedback in order that their comments may be used to establish a working agenda of priority issues.

## 4. Monographs

On the basis of the conference, the exploratory session, and the series of workshops, two formal monographs should be commissioned by the Council:

1. "The Public Services and the Voluntary Sector".
2. "Education, Training and Development in Government/ Voluntary Sector Relationships".

While developed from a solid research base, the monographs should be written for wide readership rather than in scholarly vein, and be viewed as a primary vehicle for placing the Council's position before government, the voluntary sector, and society-at-large. They would, therefore, consolidate the findings of the Council as a result of this and related studies, the conference, the exploratory session, the workshops, and follow-up Council discussion. Each would contain detailed proposals for action, and where appropriate for further research.

## 5. Speeches, Programme Modules

The content of the two monographs, and the background material upon which they were based, would provide a useful basis for major speeches, and for modules to be inserted in the more general educational programmes of both sectors. Such speeches and modules could prove excellent additional vehicles for orienting people to interface issues and challenges, and generally preparing the ground for

more detailed needs' studies.

6.    Needs' Studies

         As a final step in the proposed series of Council initiatives,
formal needs' studies should be commissioned, along the lines noted
in the body of this report.

Implementation Schedule

         In terms of a tentative schedule, it would be feasible to
hold the conference, exploratory sessions and the workshops over
a four-month span from the date of formal Council decision (six
weeks for preparation and publicity, plus an eight-week implement-
ation period), and to complete the two monographs over a further
two to three months.  This would mean that formal needs' studies
could start within 6-9 months of Council decision to proceed with
the total series of initiatives.